R E P O R T R E S U M E S

ED 016 275 CG 001 724

STRATEGIES FOR EDUCATIONAL CHANGE IN PUPIL PERSONNEL SERVICES.

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PUB DATE 66

EDRS PRICE MF-$0.25 HC-$2.00 48P.

DESCRIPTORS- *STUDENT PERSONNEL SERVICES, SOCIAL CHANGE, *EDUCATIONAL CHANGE, *RESEARCH NEEDS, *RESEARCH UTILIZATION, DATA PROCESSING, GOVERNMENT ROLE,

EDUCATION AND SOCIAL CHANGE ARE CLOSELY LINKED, BUT CHANGES IN EDUCATION ARE USUALLY SLOW. RECENT CONFERENCES AND PUBLICATIONS HAVE CONSIDERED STRATEGIES FOR PLANNED CHANGE TO MEET CURRENT SOCIETAL NEEDS. A MAJOR AREA STUDIED IS PUPIL PERSONNEL SERVICES. THE FOCUS OF THE INTERPROFESSIONAL RESEARCH COMMISSION ON PUPIL PERSONNEL SERVICES (IRCOPPS) AND OTHER PROJECTS, ON A UNITY IN SERVICES, SUGGESTS AN IMPORTANT DIRECTION OF CHANGE. INCREASED RESEARCH, DATA PROCESSING, AND GOVERNMENT FUNDING ARE MAIN FACTORS ENCOURAGING CHANGE IN PUPIL PERSONNEL SERVICES. (NS)

ED0162275

STRATEGIES FOR EDUCATIONAL CHANGE IN PUPIL PERSONNEL SERVICES

by
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Education 601B
Spring, 1966

CG 001 724

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION & WELFARE
OFFICE OF EDUCATION

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Change is and always will be.

More research and study are needed in this area. Many papers conclude with the preceding statement. However, this paper is starting with it, for it is realized at the outset that parts of this paper will be out-of-date soon after it is written. Perhaps nothing changes as fast as change itself. This is particularly true in a relatively new area such as pupil personnel services.

The purpose of this paper will be to take a quick look at the current status of strategies for educational change in pupil personnel services. To accomplish that it will also be necessary to consider change in education and society in general, for the pupil personnel services certainly do not operate in a vacuum. Whether significant change takes place or not may depend more on the situation in Vietnam than on what leaders in pupil personnel decide.

As indicated, change will take place. The only choice that really exists is whether the change will be planned and organized, or if it will come about to meet each new situation as it arises.

Pupil personnel services.

For the purposes of this study, pupil personnel services will be defined as "a group of services and functions in elementary and secondary schools which aim to adapt the school program to the needs of

the learner and to help the learner adjust to the school program."[1] The five services usually considered in this area are guidance and counseling, school psychology, child accounting and attendance services, health services, and school social work services. Within the state of New York the most common other supervisory responsibilities for pupil personnel administrators are in the areas of education of the handicapped and in speech.[2] "Pupil personnel services are essentially facilitative, their job being to see that pupils receive optimum benefit from the educational programs by providing services to teachers and principals and often directly to the pupils themselves."[3]

Attendance was the earliest of the services in the school setting. It began in 1852 when Massachusetts enacted state compulsory school attendance laws. Each of the other services originated as disciplines outside the schools,[4] and then began in the educational setting about 1900. Once the services were introduced in the schools they were greatly affected by popular movements of the times. The most significant influence was the National Defense Education Act of 1958 which encouraged

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[1]Donald G. Ferguson, Pupil Personnel Services (Washington, D. C.: The Center for Applied Research in Education, Inc., 1963) p. 5.

[2]Letter from Bruce E. Shear, Director, State of New York Division of Pupil Personnel Services, Albany, New York, January 12, 1966.

[3]Ferguson, op. cit., p. 36.

[4]Bruce E. Shear, "Pupil Personnel Services: History and Growth," Theory into Practice, IV (October, 1965), 134.

the use of guidance counselors at the secondary school level. For a detailed account of the history of the services, see Shear and Ferguson.[5]

The area of pupil personnel services is one of the three major areas of school organization. Instruction provides basic content and activities for learning in the schools. Administration, including supervision, provides the staff, facilities, materials, organization, and leadership which support effective learning. Pupil personnel services supports optimum student utilization of effective instruction.[6] "The primary purpose of a program of pupil personnel services is to facilitate the maximum development of each individual through education."[7]

Planned change in education and other areas.

Change in pupil personnel services and change in education are parts of social change in general. One needs to remember that the purposes of American education are not solely determined by educators, for the schools belong to the people. "It is trite but true that education is too important to be left to the educators, just as war is too important to be left to the generals."[8]

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[5]Ibid., 133-39; Ferguson, op. cit., pp. 15-21.

[6]Joint Committee on Pupil Services, Ohio Department of Education, The Organization of Pupil Services (Columbus: Columbus Blank Book Company, 1964), p. 2.

[7]Responsibilities of State Departments of Education for Pupil Personnel Services (Washington, D. C.: Council of Chief State School Officers, 1960), p. 2, quoted in Shear, Loc. cit., 133.

[8]David G. Salten, "Reactions to the Conference," Journal of School Psychology, III (Winter, 1964-65), 26.

Let's take a look at some of the concepts and terminology of social change. As seen by Bhola, [9] the first distinction may be made between change through transmission of culture and change by transformation of social patterns. Change through transmission is what anthropologists would call evolutionary change. It occurs by the transmission of culture between generations. This type of change is not planned. Statements about evolutionary change can be made only after they have occured. It is an unconscious adjustment to the environment. If change develops through conscious decisions it becomes change by transformation. Change by transformation of social patterns may be further divided into two types, homeostatic change and inventive change. Homeostatis is the tendency of an organism (or social system) to seek a new balance in its elements when an earlier state of balance has been disturbed. Therefore, homeostatic change may be seen as reactive change that takes place to adjust to new situations as they occur. It is not anticipatory. Homeostatic change may be inward-directed or outward-directed depending on whether the organism changes itself to adjust to the new situation, or whether the organism attempts to change the situation.

Inventive, or planned, change is the other type of change by transformation. It is the main concern of this paper. Planned change has objectives as well as schemes for achieving the objectives. Whenever someone decides to do something about social systems and to influence

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[9] Harbans Singh Bhola, SEC Newsletter, I (January, 1966), 1-5.

them it becomes planned change. It also may be inward-directed or outward-directed, with the latter being much more common and noticeable.

The ideas of planned change means different things to different people. Some criticize it as undemocratic and authoritarian.[10] Others feel that the effective maintenance and extension of democratic values in industrial society seem to require the services of persons committed to, and skilled in, the stimulation and development of planned change in social patterns and human relationships.[11] Others have stated that evidence all over the world indicates that centralized educational planning usually ends in the disappointment of the planners and that "rigid educational planning cannot in the end provide for the many unpredictable situations brought about by rapid progress."[12]

Benne feels that planned change can be democratic, but that certain precautions must be taken. Of the five basic democratic norms that he identifies, the main theme seems to be that the engineering of change must be controlled by the requirements of the problem and its effective solution, rather than oriented to the maintenance or extension of the prestige or power of those who contribute.[13]

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[10]Harbans Singh Bhola, Innovation Research and Theory (Columbus: The Ohio State University, 1965), p. 3.

[11]Kenneth D. Benne, "Democratic Ethics in Social Engineering," Progressive Education, XXVI (May, 1949), cited in Warren G. Bennis, Kenneth D. Benne, and Robert Chin, The Planning of Change (New York: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston, 1961), p. 142.

[12]George Z. F. Bereday, William W. Brickman, and Gerald H. Read, The Changing Soviet School (Cambridge: The Riverside Press, 1960), p. 6.

[13]Benne, loc. cit., pp. 142-46.

A group of others appear to favor planned change but would be quite cautious in implementing it. Blanke feels that if change is to be effective it would be important to anticipate the role threat to all departments and individuals in a school system before the change is proposed. He states that we must learn more about resisters and facilitators that are involved in all stages of the change process, because they may be even more important than the quality of the innovation in determining its potential adoption or rejection.[14] Knezevich has stated that there is no chance of discovering a cure-all for education, and that no John Dewey or E. L. Thorndike is available now. "Defensible and prudent innovations are based on carefully drawn conceptual design, experimentation, and validation to substantiate conclusions."[15] Kochnower indicates that innovations are achieved at a cost in stability, structure, and teacher growth. He lists five steps to modify conditions so that costs, risks, and the possibility of negative reaction are reduced. The steps are to put greater stress on suitable research techniques, institute pilot programs with restraint and after sufficient preparation, have a greater degree of centralization in educational research and curriculum development, develop improved methods of reporting significant breakthroughs in education, and carefully control the implementation of new programs.[16]

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[14]Virgil E. Blanke, "A Lesson in Change", Theory into Practice, IV (October, 1965), 131-32.

[15]Stephen J. Knezevich, "Innovation--A New Hope or Another Cliché?" The School Administrator, XXIII (May, 1966), 2, 6, 7.

[16]William Kochnower, "Educational Progress or Turmoil," The Educational Forum, XXX (March, 1966), 273-76.

Throughout the literature on planned change in education in general and pupil personnel services in particular, much reference is made to progress that has taken place through planned change in other areas, especially planned change in the field of agriculture. The theory-practice gap that exists between the researcher and the practitioner in education seems to be increasing. Guba explains how that gap has been closed in the field of agriculture. "We would not ask a farmer, even one with a college degree, to subscribe to professional journals in agronomy, in the hope that by reading them he might uncover applications which would assist him in doing a better job of farming. Nor would we ask the agronomist to leave his laboratory regularly in order to work directly with farmers to improve their farming practices."[17] The farmers and research agronomists have very little direct communication. Instead, through the Agricultural Extension Service, the agronomist talks to county agents who in turn communicate primarily with a selected group of farmers in their counties who may be considered local innovators. The innovators act as demonstration agents for the other farmers in the district. A similar communication system is needed in education in order to close the theory-practice gap.[18]

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[17]Interview with Egon G. Guba, Professor at Ohio State University School of Education, as quoted in SEC Newsletter, I (October, 1965), 2.

[18]Ibid.

Considerable effort has been made to develop adequate methods of planned change in education. A rather complete and current summary of the methods may be found in Bhola's book on Innovation Research and Theory.[19] One schema for educational change has been suggested by Guba and Clark.[20] It is presented on the following page. Rogers suggests five stages in the adoption of change: (1) awareness, (2) interest, (3) evaluation, (4) trial, and (5) adoption.[21] He has found certain characteristics of innovators, such as their generally being young, of relatively high social status, cosmopolite, and being viewed as deviants by their peers. He also feels that "the absence of agents that promote change may be a factor in the relative slowness with which schools adopt innovations."[22]

The need for studies of the process of change is evident when one considers how slowly education has changed in the past. In 1949 Cocking made a study of eight educational practices in a nationwide survey of urban school systems. He found that after a very slow tryout period it took 10 years for the educational practices to become diffused into 5 percent of the school systems investigated after they had been

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[19]Bhola, op. cit.

[20]Egon G. Guba and David L. Clark, cited by SEC Newsletter, I (October, 1965), 2-5.

[21]Everett M. Rogers, Diffusion of Innovation (New York: The Free Press of Glencoe, 1964), pp. 81-86.

[22]Everett M. Rogers, "What Are Innovators Like," Theory into Practice, II (December, 1963), 256.

A CLASSIFICATION SCHEMA OF PROCESSES RELATED TO AND NECESSARY FOR CHANGE IN EDUCATION*

	RESEARCH	DEVELOPMENT		DIFFUSION		ADOPTION		
		INVENTION	DESIGN	DISSEM-INATION	DEMONSTRA-TION	TRIAL	INSTALLA-TION	INSTITUTION-ALIZATION
OBJECTIVE	To advance knowledge	To formulate a new solution to an operating problem or to a class of operating problems, ie, to innovate	To order and to systematize the components of the invented solution, to construct an innovation package for institutional use, ie., to engineer	To create widespread awareness of the invention among practitioners, ie., to inform	To afford an opportunity to examine and assess operating qualities of the invention, ie., to build conviction	To build familiarity with the invention and provide a basis for assessing the quality, value fit, and utility of the invention in a particular institution, ie, to test	To fit the characteristics of the invention to the characteristics of the adopting institution, ie., to operationalize	To assimilate the invention as an integral and accepted component of the system, ie. to establish
CRITERIA	Validity (internal & external)	Face Validity (appropriateness) --- Estimated Viability --- impact (relative contribution)	Institutional Feasibility --- Generalizability--- Performance	Intelligibility--- Fidelity --- Pervasiveness--- impact (extent to which it effects key targets)	Credibility --- Convenience --- Evidential Assessment	Adaptability ---- Feasibility ---- Action	Effectiveness --- Efficiency	Continuity --- Valuation --- Support

	RESEARCH	DEVELOPMENT		DIFFUSION		ADOPTION		
		INVENTION	DESIGN	DISSEM-INATION	DEMONSTRA-TION	TRIAL	INSTALLA-TION	INSTITUTION-ALIZATION
RELATION TO CHANGE	Provides basis for invention	Produces the invention	Engineers and packages the invention	Informs about the invention	Builds convict-ion about the invention	Tries out the invention in the context of a particular situation	Operational-izes the invention for use in a specific institution	Establishes the invention as a part of an ongoing program. Converts it to a "non-innovation"

*The Guba-Clark schema described in this Newsletter is from their paper, "An Examination of Potential Change Roles in Education," which was among those delivered at the National Education Association-Committee for Study of Institution Symposium-Innovation in Planning School Curricula at Airielhouse, Va., October 24, 1965.

introduced into 1 percent of the systems, and that it took an additional 5 years for the practices to be introduced into 10 percent of the school systems. Complete diffusion of a practice to the schools of a state takes 50 years.[23]

People in various fields are concerned about the slowness of educational change. As economists Sylvia Porter has put it, the heart of the problem of improving the quality of American education is innovation, flexibility, and change. "In a dynamic society, the educational process should be a leader, not a laggard."[24] However, change in education is difficult to achieve.

Why educational change is difficult.

As a recent publication has emphasized, change is difficult for the following four reasons:

1) There is no economic incentive for educators to innovate. Pay is usually based on the person's education and longevity, and he may even lose his job if an innovation is unsuccessful or pushed too strongly.

2) There are few change agents in education. Administrators usually preserve the status quo. Many teachers also tend to resist change, and even those who try to be innovators find that as teachers they are

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[23]Walter Cocking, The Regional Introduction of Educational Practices in Urban School Systems of the United States (New York: Teachers College, Columbia University Study, 1951), as quoted in Bhola, Innovation Research and Theory, pp. 85-86.

[24]Sylvia Porter, "Changes Needed To Upgrade Education," Akron Beacon Journal, March 2, 1966, p. G16.

among the most isolated professionals, low down on the educational hierarchy, with little influence on overall curriculum and method.[25] As professional educators, teachers should have more say, and do more of the planning.[26] "If teachers were more aggressive as a group they would be more effective in making the educational institution truly a source of leadership in the modern democracy."[27]

3) Community forces outside schools discourage change. Change is a threat to most people. Changed schools are likely to mean higher taxes or abandonment of cherished ideas of education. Those who are against change in other areas may feel insignificant in resisting it, but then use their energies all the more in maintaining the status quo in their schools as one of the major areas where local community forces have an influence in shaping policy.

4) Educational research is difficult and underdeveloped, with no clear-cut way of getting research findings from the laboratory into the classroom. It is not easy to test and prove the effectiveness of new methods and materials in education. There are many variables, obsolete methods are difficult to recognize, and there is no set way to adopt new practices.[28]

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[25]June Sark Heinrich, Teacher Education Extension Service, Unit VIII: How To Bring About Change in a School System (May 1, 1966), 4.

[26]Roald F. Campbell, Luvern L. Cunningham, and Roderick F. McPhee, The Organization and Control of American Schools (Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill Books, Inc., 1965), p. 538.

[27]August Kerber and Wilfred R. Smith, Educational Issues in a Changing Society (Detroit: Wayne State University Press, 1964), p. 297.

[28]Heinrich, loc. cit., 4-5.

CHAPTER II

STRATEGIES FOR EDUCATIONAL CHANGE

The need for change.

Basically, the factors that are cited as the reasons educational change is needed are the same factors that make pupil personnel services so important. Some of these are the increase in juvenile delinquency, the increased mobility of the population, expanding urbanization, unemployed youth, the advancement of technology, the rapid accumulation of new knowledge, the high rate of mental illness, concern for the welfare of all youth, and pressures for maximum utilization of our human resources.[29]

Within the field of education there are many new developments that relate to planned change. Several of the more important ones will be discussed in this chapter. Others relate more specifically to change in the area of pupil personnel services and will be treated in the next chapter.

Conference on Strategies for Educational Change.

One approach which has recently been made to study the area of change in education was a national conference on Strategies for Educational

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[29]Benjamin C. Willis, "Changes in American Education in the Next Decade: Some Predictions," Innovation in Education, ed. Matthew B. Miles (New York: Teachers College, Columbia University Bureau of Publications, 1964), 619; Joint Committee on Pupil Services, op. cit., p. 3.

Change, sponsored jointly by the United States Office of Education and The Ohio State University. It was held in Washington, D. C. on November 8-10, 1965. The 60 participants included anthropologists, sociologists, social psychologists, political scientists, educators, and communication researchers interested in social change. The conference studied the process and planning of educational change and its ramifications from local to national level.[30]

"This Conference was born out of the belief that although some educational change is taking place in schools, education has not kept up with other disciplines in the study of change or in profiting from such study; that more change is imminent because of the huge amounts of money being poured into education; that the process of educational change is not very well understood; and that many educators are psychologically and organizationally unprepared to handle the planning of change in the American educational system."[31]

Ten monthly Newsletters were planned in connection with the Conference. The Newsletters were designed to fulfill two functions. One was to disseminate ideas developed during the implementation of the Conference project among people interested in change who were not conference participants. The second function was to promote interest, research, and action among educators by stimulating dialogue on the problems, procedures, and prospects of planned change in education.[32]

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[30]Virgil E. Blanke (ed.), SEC Newsletter, I (December, 1965), 1.

[31]Ibid., 2.

[32]Ibid., 1.

The Conference was successful in getting leading educators together with national leaders in other disciplines who have knowledge of change factors. As a noted sociologist remarked as a result of the Conference, "I have suddenly realized that I could do some work in the area of public education."[33] Also, the wide dissemination of the Newsletter has made many people more involved with, and knowledgeable about, planned educational change. The real success of the Conference or the Newsletters can only be determined in the years to come.

Role of the Federal Government.

One of the outstanding trends in the twentieth century has been the increasingly important role played by the federal government in safeguarding the public health, morals, and welfare.[34] This trend is being felt more strongly in education each year. "At the recent AASA convention the fact clearly emerged that the schoolmen are caught in a painful dilemma--wanting federal funds to achieve better education, but not wanting federal control."[35]

Some of the top leaders in education are concerned that the source of power affecting schools is going away from state and local governments. Instead they see power shifting toward two vested interests, the federal government and big business. As Dean Sizer of the Harvard Graduate School

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[33]Elihu Katz, quoted in Ibid., 5.

[34]John Braeman, Robert H. Bremner, and Everett Walters, Change and Continuity in Twentieth-Century America (Columubs: Ohio State University Press, 1964), p. viii.

[35]Elaine Exton, 'Whither Federal-Local Relations--Schoolmen in Painful Dilemma," The American School Board Journal, CLII (April, 1966), 45.

of Education has stated, the men in government tend to be young fellows who "want, and for good political reasons, need fast results. This has meant quickly-planned and large-scale innovations for elementary and secondary schools. There is rarely thoughtful inquiry as to the long-term effect of programs . . . "[36]

Certainly the debate over the extent of federal involvement in education will be continued for many years. With federal versus local control being one of the major issues in the 1964 presidential election, it would appear that President Johnson received a mandate to increase federal involvement in many areas of national life. In January, 1965 the President concluded his education message to Congress with these words:

> We are now embarked on another venture to put the American dream to work in meeting the demands of a new day. Once again, we must start where men who would improve their society have always known they must begin--with an educational system restudied, reinforced, and revitalized.[37]

This year alone the U. S. government will pump $4 billion into public education.[38]

Another part of the debate deals with how much federal control is necessary or desirable. Just before the 1964 election President Johnson stated that we must keep control of our schools with the people, where it beongs and that we must strengthen the state and community

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[36]Theodore R. Sizer, Dean of the Harvard Graduate School of Education, quoted in Teacher's Letter, XV (March 15, 1966), 1.

[37]Lyndon B. Johnson, quoted in Francis Keppel, "The National Commitment to Education," Phi Delta Kappan, XLVII (December, 1965), 167.

[38]Teacher's Letter, XV (March 15, 1966), 1.

education systems.[39] That view would be shared by many people, including Campbell, who feels that every effort must be made to resist unnecessary tendencies toward centralization even though he realizes that federal involvement will increase. He states that citizens need the opportunity at the local level to participate in decisions which affect the welfare of their children.[40] Others feel that long-range strategy must de-emphasize the community-by-community approach to educational improvements and that there should be a correspondingly greater emphasis placed on improvements at the state and national levels.[41]

Although planned educational change and the increasing involvement of the federal government in education are two separate issues, many people tend to view them together. Either may be opposed because they would tend to put too much power in the hands of a few people. Either may be favored because they offer the possibility of significant improvements in education. These issues will be discussed further in the next chapter, especially on the topic of the national assessment program.

The Compact for Education.

The Compact for Education is an agreement between the states to join together for the improvement of education. Based on its written statements, it does not represent an effort to curtail federal activity.

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[39]Johnson, loc. cit., p. 168.

[40]Campbell, Cunningham, and McPhee, op. cit., p. 187.

[41]Myron Lieberman, The Future of Public Education Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1960), p. 274.

In fact it makes provision for federal participation and cooperation. It is an attempt to bring together all the resources that the American people have to improve education through state action for better schools and schooling.[42] It was the idea of Dr. Conant, as he saw that some degree of order needed to be brought out of the jumble of influential private and public bodies that determine educational policy in the United States. He suggested "a possible way by which the road to the development of a nationwide educational policy might be opened up. Let the fifty states, or at least fifteen to twenty of the more populous states, enter into a compact for the creation of an 'Interstate Commission for Planning a Nationwide Educational Policy . . .'"[43] He developed his idea further at the 1965 National Governors' Conference, where a resolution was unanimously adopted to endorse the Compact idea.

On the basis of Dr. Conant's idea, Governor Terry Sanford of North Carolina wrote to governors, educators, associations, and others with a concern for education. Many individuals and organizations of national significance supported the Compact idea. In September, 1965 a general planning conference on the Compact for Education was attended by 19 governors and representatives from every state, plus Puerto Rico, American Samoa, and the Virgin Islands. It took the following action:

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[42]The Compact for Education (Durham, N. C.: Duke University, 1965), p. xiii.

[43]James B. Conant, Shaping Educational Policy (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1964), p. 123.

(1) took steps to create, and made Bylaws for, an Education Commission of the States, (2) approved the Compact document and a schedule of entry fees, (3) selected committees to hire an Executive Director and secure permanent offices, and (4) set up an Interim Planning, Development, and Steering Committee led by Governor John Chaffee of Rhode Island.[44]

The Compact was created to enable the states to do a better job in meeting the educational needs of the people. It will perform its function in most instances as a clearing house to provide information on matters relating to educational problems and how they are being met elsewhere. In cases where it is desirable to make recommendations to the states or the Federal Government, the policy will be to present alternative views. Its reports will not be binding, but will be informational in character. It will encourage dissent. It will not compete with or replace current associations and organizations in the field of education. It is designed to stimulate state action in education. It will carry out research and explore new ways for states to attack educational problems. It is a partnership between the educational and political forces for the advancement of education.[45]

Dr. Wendell H. Pierce, superintendent of Cincinnati Public Schools has been selected as executive director of the Compact. He is scheduled to begin full-time duty on February 1, 1967 at temporary headquarters in

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[44] The Compact for Education, op. cit., pp. vi-viii, 11.

[45] Ibid., iii-20.

Cincinnati.[46] As of April 11, 1966 there were 22 members in the Compact for Education, and at least 5 more are expected to join by June. [47] Early financial aid came from The Carnegie Corporation and The Danforth Foundation, each making $150,000 grants.[48]

Even though the actual Compact is not yet a reality, many educators are having second thoughts about it. They are wary of the partnership between educators and politicians and feel that the politicians will overshadow the educators. Others maintain that there is no need for a new organization to exchange information among the states. They feel that the National School Board Association and the American Association of School Administrators could do the job better and more efficiently than the Compact.[49] Other schoolmen disagree, and feel that the Compact is needed to balance the rapidly growing influence of the federal government in education. As Dr. James E. Allen, New York State Commissioner of Education, points out, the possible benefits of getting politicians concerned with education outweigh the risks. Much of the friction in the past grew out of the politicians lack of understanding of the problems of education. That is what the Compact is designed to correct.[50]

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[46] The School Administrator, XXIII (May, 1966), 8.

[47] Letter from Terry Sanford, Duke University, Durham, N. C., April 11, 1966.

[48] The Compact for Education, op. cit., p. xii.

[49] Arthur Bishop (ed.), Education Summary, (May 15, 1966), 1, 2.

[50] James E. Allen, cited by ibid., 2.

Other change agents.

Many different items could be considered here, but just three will be specifically mentioned. One of these is the magazine entitled Theory Into Practice. It is "an organ of the College of Education, The Ohio State University. It is committed to the point of view that there is an integral relationship between educational theory and practice."[51] Each issue centers on a particular area or topic in education. It seems to be aimed primarily at administrators and other leaders in education who are concerned about trying to narrow the theory-practice gap and make improvements in the field of education.

Another area that deserves special attention is the various publications to keep teachers and other school people informed of new developments through an in-service education type of program. One of these, the Teacher Education Extension Service, deserves special attention due to the extensiveness of the monthly booklets and the title of the latest one, "How To Bring About Change in a School System."[52] The booklets are designed to "provide monthly content for thought-provoking, discussion-stimulating, information-giving, education-improving in-service programs."[53]

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[51]Egon G. Guba (ed.), Theory Into Practice, IV (October, 1965), ii.

[52]Heinrich, loc. cit., pp. iii-22.

[53]Letter from Paul T. Kosiak, Director Educational Services, Science Research Associates, Inc., Chicago, Ill., May, 1966.

They are another way to encourage thought and action in the many new developments in education.

The third area of change to merit special attention is the Educational Research Council of Greater Cleveland and similar groups throughout the country. The Council's first task when it was formed in 1959 was to work out a model of modern research for the exclusive service of elementary and secondary education. That simple yet profound purpose made it unique, for prior to its creation practically all research that was done for elementary and secondary education was done in colleges, on a part-time basis. it was handled as though it did not matter very much. The Council realized that the problems of elementary and secondary education are so specific that they must be handled by specially trained people who observe the problems where they occur, in the classroom.[54] The Council receives its financial support from contributions by foundations and industry, plus fees from member schools, sales and royalties. It has various active departments such as social science, curriculum, mathematics, reading and i.t.a., child and educational psychology, physical education, evaluation and testing, in-service education, and administrative services.[55]

The success of the Council may be seen by attempts to develop similar organizations throughout the country. The U. S. Office of Education

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[54]Annual Report-1965, Educational Research Council of Greater Cleveland, Cleveland, Ohio, p. 2.

[55]Ibid., 5-25.

has funded nine Research and Development Centers, located at the Universities of Arizona, California, Georgia, Oregon, Texas, Wisconsin, Harvard, Pittsburgh, and Stanford. Each has the commitment to educational research and to put that research into action.[56]

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[56]Virgil E. Blanke (ed.), SEC Newsletter, I (September, 1965), 4.

CHAPTER III

STRATEGIES FOR CHANGE IN PUPIL PERSONNEL SERVICES

One may wonder why so much of this paper has been devoted to the preceding sections when the purpose is to study change in the area of pupil personnel services. However, change within pupil personnel services, as within any other area of education, cannot be detached from educational change in general. Further, each of the areas discussed in the preceding chapters have relevance for pupil personnel services. Without the Strategies for Educational Change Conference and Newsletters, this paper would probably not have been written. Suggested studies for the Compact for Education include "Adequacy of guidance services" and others that relate to pupil personnel services.[57] The October, 1965 issue of Theory Into Practice was devoted entirely to "New Dimensions in Pupil Personnel Services." One of the articles points out part of the difficulty of writing a paper such as this, for workers in pupil personnel services "cannot boast of having shown any vigorous leadership in dealing with the problems and the phenomena of innovation."[58] As mentioned previously, the Educational Research Council of Greater Cleveland has a child and educational psychology department, plus an evaluation and testing

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[57]The Compact for Education, op. cit., p. x.

[58]Donald G. Ferguson, "Critical Issues in Pupil Personnel Work," Theory Into Practice, IV (October, 1965), 141-42.

department. Although none of the U.S. Office of Education Research and Development Centers is particularly designed to deal with the area of pupil personnel services,[59] various of their studies are in that area. Project SUCCEED at the University of Pittsburgh is one example. It is a project to equalize educational opportunity for disadvantaged youth. It is concerned specifically with four elements in the school system which influence a child's capacity and desire to profit from his educational opportunities. One of the four elements is pupil personnel services. The personnel in that area will be assisted "in examining how they might modify and expand their programs, with particular concern for the social and personal needs of disadvantaged students."[60]

In addition to the above, many exciting developments are taking place within pupil personnel services. This chapter will mention several different ones which have definite implications for change in pupil personnel services. The developments would study the current situation, clarify areas of need, conduct research, bring more unity to the services, provide financial support, present a new approach for the services, and add technical innovations.

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[59]Letter from Raymond Hummel, Research Associate, University of Pittsburgh Learning Research and Development Center, Pittsburgh, Pa., April 27, 1966.

[60]Report on Project SUCCEED, University of Pittsburgh Learning Research and Development Center, January, 1966.

Interprofessional Research Commission on Pupil Personnel Services.

Perhaps the largest study in the area of pupil services is being done by the Interprofessional Research Commission on Pupil Personnel Services (commonly called IRCOPPS). In 1962 the Commission obtained a grant from the National Institute of Mental Health to carry out a five year program of research and demonstrations which are now operating from a central office at the University of Maryland and four regional centers. The Commission is attempting to describe and evaluate existing programs in various kinds of communities, determine the relative effectiveness of programs aimed at primary and secondary prevention of learning difficulties, experiment with new methods of training pupil personnel workers, find more efficient ways of using the workers' time, and to demonstrate ways of improving the relationship between the instructional program and pupil services.[61]

The central staff, led by Dr. Gordon Liddle, is carrying out nationwide surveys of pupil services and is assisting some of the states with the analysis of some of their data on the effects of pupil services. Each of the regional centers is carrying out action-research projects in public schools in their region of the country. The Center at the University of California at Los Angeles is experimenting with the use of pupil personnel workers as leaders of groups of parents and groups of teachers.

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[61]Report on the Interprofessional Research Commission on Pupil Personnel Services by Gordon Liddle, Director, and John Fisher, Assistant Director, at National Association of Secondary School Principals' Convention, Cleveland, Ohio, February 8, 1966, p. 1.

The center at the University of Maryland is experimenting with the efficacy of training a single worker to handle most of the functions now commonly played in elementary schools by the school social worker, the counselor, and the psychologist. The University of Texas center is experimenting with the use of pupil personnel workers as consultants to elementary teachers. At the University of Michigan experimentation is being done with the interdisciplinary training of pupil personnel workers.[62]

The IRCOPPS program should provide much information about the particular areas that are being studied at each center. However, its most important impact may be to point out other studies, alternatives, and experiments that need to be considered. The vast amount of information obtained by the program should make other studies much more meaningful. It should also help make many people more knowledgeable about the general area of pupil personnel services.

New York State Association of Pupil Personnel Administrators.

One of the major attempts to organize the area of pupil personnel services is being done by the New York State Association of Pupil Personnel Administrators. It was developed to become a home for pupil personnel administrators within in the State of New York. It should not merely be a home to provide comfort and security, but also "it should be a home, a professional base, in which common understandings, personal development and important group contributions are encouraged and achieved through active participation and close cooperation. In short, this professional

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[62] Ibid.

family has the opportunity and the obligation to make many significant contributions to the wider communities of pupil personnel and of education."[63] One indication of the success of the organization is that the number of districts reporting persons assigned to pupil personnel coordination has increased within the state from 75 to 189 in the last five years. In addition, the number of services coordinated by each person has also shown a general increase.[64]

The theme of the Association's recent third annual conference was "Pupil Personnel Services in Action-Local and National." During the last two days of the conference, Donald S. Childs and Bruce E. Shear, present and past presidents of the Association respectively, plus representative pupil personnel administrators from states other than New York, discussed the possibility of a national organization and then took steps to put their thoughts into action.[65] Such an organization is needed to further develop, and provide evidence of, the concept of a team approach in pupil services. In the past there has been no national group, agency, or association supporting the team concept. The National Education Association does not have a division of pupil services, the American

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[63]Bruce E. Shear, "The Pupil Personnel Administrator," May, 1964.

[64]Letter from Shear, loc. cit.

[65]Program, Third Annual Conference, New York State Association of Pupil Personnel Administrators, May 11-14, 1966, Plainview, New York.

Personnel and Guidance Association and the American Psychological Association include counselors and school pscyhologists but not the other areas, while the International Association of Pupil Personnel Workers is primarily concerned with the attendance officer, visiting teacher, and social worker and seems not to attract other specialists in pupil personnel.[66]

Whether a national pupil personnel administrators' association, or more state associations, will be successful is yet to be determined. However, it provides one of the hopes for bringing progress and more unity to the area.

Conference on New Directions in School Psychology.

The Conference on New Directions in School Psychology was planned through the joint efforts of the central office and the Division of School Psychologists of the American Psychological Association and two branches of the National Institute of Mental Health. It was planned to exchange ideas about possible new directions in school psychology. It was an important conference, not because it offered solutions to the many problems to be faced, but because it was the first major meeting at a national level since 1954 of persons involved in the training and use of school psychologists.[67] Although there was a consensus of opinion on very few issues discussed, there was general agreement on three future trends.

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[66]Ferguson, loc. cit., p. 143.

[67]Jack I. Bardon, "Introduction," Journal of School Psychology, III (Winter, 1964-65), 3.

They were: (1) research activity in some form will play a large part in the activities of the school psychologist, (2) psychometrics will be relegated to a lesser position, and (3) emphasis will increasingly be on primary prevention.[68] The major conclusion of the Conference seemed to be that there is much diversity in the training, duties, and purpose of a school psychologist at the present time. This may be seen as a positive rather than a negative aspect of a developing speciality, for with different models of a school psychologist being produced and used, it makes possible a comparison of them to determine the effectiveness of each. A need for more meetings of people involved in the field of school psychology seemed evident.[69]

Conferences like the one described here could be important steps in educational change within each of the pupil personnel services. Discussion of the differences of opinion and practices may lead to a clarity of purpose and should at least make the workers more aware of alternative methods and techniques that could be used.

National Assessment of Educational Progress.

Some would argue that to include this topic in a report on pupil personnel services, or even a report on guidance, would be a misunderstanding of the purpose of the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP). However, it is related to testing and it is likely to

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[68]Jack I. Bardon, "Summary of Views Presented Prior to the Conference," Journal of School Psychology, III (Winter, 1964-65), 6-13.

[69]Jack I. Bardon, "Conclusions and Recommendations," Journal of School Psychology, III (Winter, 1964-65), 42-44.

be a topic about which most of the people in pupil personnel should be informed. Therefore, it is presented here as a factor in planned educational change.

Because public education is a servant of the people, its effectiveness is of general public concern. Until recently "the need for wide public understanding of educational progress and problems was not generally recognized."[70] However, "our schools, in the main, are without any systematic evaluation program or product quality control system. Any other organization as large and important would have been out of business by this time without some clearer criteria to demonstrate its value."[71] To provide sound evidence about the progress of American education, the Carnegie Corporation in 1964 appointed an Exploratory Committee on Assessing the Progress of Education. The Committee was to develop and try-out instruments and procedures for assessing the progress of education and to confer with educators on ways such a project may be constructively helpful to the schools and avoid possible injuries. Lists of educational objectives, and prototype exercises which help to define them, were developed. They were then reviewed by a series of panels of public-spirited citizens throughout the country. Each objective was assessed to be sure that it was considered important by scholars, accepted as an educational task by the school, and deemed desirable by leading lay citizens.[72]

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[70]Ralph W. Tyler, "A Program of National Assessment," The Educational Forum, XXX (May, 1966), 392.

[71]Ferguson, loc. cit., p. 141.

[72]Tyler, loc. cit., pp. 392-94.

The present plan is to assess a probability sample for each of the 192 populations defined by the following subdivisions: four geographic regions, four age levels (age 9, 13, 16 and adult), both sexes, three divisions by urban, suburban, rural classifications, and two socioeconomic levels. To obtain instruments which adequately measure the extremes and not just the "average" child, one-third of the exercises for each age group are to be at approximately the 10 percent level of difficulty, one-third at the 50 percent level, and one-third at the 90 percent level. Since populations and not individuals are to be assessed, noone person will be given more than a fraction of the exercises. In addition to paper-and-pencil tests, interviewing, observation, and performance tests will be used. The assessment, though costly, should be feasible and involve little or no inconvenience to individuals or to schools.[73]

The project is encountering some difficulty being understood, partly because it is being confused with a national testing program which is also being conducted by the Educational Testing Service under contract with the U.S. Office of Education as a part of the Civil Rights Act. At the recent American Association of School Administrators' convention the most comprehensive indictment of the national assessment proposal was delivered by Dr. Harold C. Hand who termed it "a recipe for control by the few."[74] As he saw it, the use of the tests on a continuing basis

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[73]Ralph W. Tyler, The Development of Instruments for Assessing Educational Progress, A Report to the Invitational Conference on Testing Problems, October 30, 1965, pp. 99-103.

[74]Harold C. Hand, quoted in Exton, loc. cit., p. 47.

would place control of the public school curriculum into the hands of the group who has the final say as to what goes into the tests, and would "make a dead duck out of the principle of state and local control of the public school curriculum."[75] He feels that probability sampling cannot discourage a great many teachers from teaching for the tests. He quotes Francis Keppel and Harold Howe, past and present Commissioners of Education, as in favor of national achievement test data on a geographic basis because the government is putting so much money into education. He feels that the next step of the federal government to gain control would be for participation in NAEP to be a requirement for receiving federal aid.[76]

As NAEP is further developed, consideration will need to be given to the problems raised by Harold C. Hand and others. If successful, the NAEP, as described by Ralph W. Tyler, should make an important and constructive contribution to the demand for valid information about the needs and accomplishments of education.

Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965.

Regardless of the effect of NAEP, the federal government seems destined to play a major part in the expansion of pupil personnel services. The National Defense Education Act of 1958 has been the greatest boost to guidance that has ever occurred.[77] In the future the Gibbons Bill

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[75] Ibid.

[76] Harold C. Hand, "Recipe for Control by the Few," The Educational Forum, XXX (March, 1966), 265-66.

[77] Ferguson, Pupil Personnel Services, p. 46.

may play an important part by providing complete Federal funding for the training and employment of a potential new member of pupil personnel services, called a child development specialist.[78] At the present time and in the immediate future a significant influence will be the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965 (abbreviated as ESEA and also known as Public Law 89-10). It authorizes more than $1.3 billion in Federal funds to strengthen and improve educational quality and opportunities in elementary and secondary schools. Titles I, III, and IV support educational change, while Title II provides funds for school library materials, textbooks, and other instructional resources, and Title V supports the efforts of State educational agencies.[79]

Title I is the main part of ESEA, with an allocation of $1.18 billion for the first year of a 3-year program. It provides financial assistance to local educational agencies serving areas with high concentrations of children from low-income families. It helps the schools expand and improve their educational programs by various means which particularly contribute to meeting the special educational needs of educationally deprived children. Although a formula based on family income determines which school districts are eligible for assistance and how much assistance they receive, the focus is on helping children whose educational achievement is below the norm, including those with

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[78]Venus Bluestine (ed.), Ohio Psychologist, XII, (March, 1966), 16.

[79]U.S., Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Profile of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965, OE-20088, (1966), 5,6.

physical, mental, or emotional handicaps. A project in improving health services, for example, would be available to all children who live in the project area, regardless of family income or enrollment in a private or public school.[80]

Grants may be made "for a wide variety of programs, which could include supplementary and remedial instruction, guidance and counseling services, and health and welfare services needed to overcome learning handicaps."[81] That statement certainly indicates the possibility of a major increase in pupil personnel services, for two of them are specifically mentioned and the other three are strongly implied. In addition, ESEA encourages the use of innovative projects to supplement existing programs. Any imaginative and untried approach to reaching the educationally deprived is bound to carry with it a certain risk of failure, but projects which succeed may more than make up for those which fail. Detailed local and State reports on innovative programs, whether successful or not, should be distributed by State educational agencies so that other educational agencies may benefit from the experience acquired.[82]

Title I provides the opportunity, with financial support, for educational change in pupil personnel services. A major problem seems to be that there are not enough qualified pupil personnel workers to adequately meet the challenge. As an advisory council report has indicated, there is a critical shortage of trained personnel to carry out the

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[80] Ibid., 7.

[81] Ibid.

[82] U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Guidelines: Special Programs for Educationally Deprived Children, OE-35079, (1965), 32.

ambitious ESEA program.[83] It behooves all of the pupil personnel workers on Title I projects to do their very best for the future reputation and recognition of the services. If ill-planned projects with incapable pupil personnel workers become too common, the entire field may be done irreparable harm, and many children will have been cheated of the opportunities they deserve. On the other hand, successful projects with good pupil personnel workers could open the door for an almost unlimited expansion of the services.

Titles III and IV of ESEA, although provided much less financial support, could also significantly affect change in pupil personnel services. Title III, known as PACE (Projects to Advance Creativity in Education), calls for local public educational agencies to develop innovative and exemplary programs based on their perception of need and interest. New approaches to guidance and counseling are suggested programs, and many different innovative pupil services could be granted financial support. Title IV is for educational research and training, especially at colleges and universities.[84]

Pupil Behavioral System.

Herman J. Peters sees the present pupil personnel system as one which tries to fit the pupil to the school instead of assisting the pupil and school to adjust to each other. He feels that the system has evolved

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[83]National Advisory Council on the Education of Disadvantaged Children, reported in "School Aid Gets Advisory Council's OK--And Criticism," Akron Beacon Journal, May 9, 1966, p. A2.

[84]U.S., Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Profile of ESEA, p. 13-18.

by performing a series of separate activities with little unified action. The focus has been on troubled students, and thus the system has developed a defensive posture as it tries to eliminate negative factors.[85]

"A new approach must be established that will take up the offensive for pupils in a positive, developmental manner. It is such an approach as this that I propose for a new program to be called the Pupil Behavioral System."[86] Special characteristics of the program would be as follows: (1) it will function as an independent, autonomous division of the school system, (2) it will establish practices that are developmentally focused and proceed on knowledge of child and adolescent behavior, with special emphasis on the appraisal of the impact of the home, school, and community on the growing personality, (3) it will work with pupils as they perceive and are perceived as individuals, (4) it will rely on the behavioral disciplines of psychology, sociology, education, anthropology, economics, and certain aspects of health, and (5) it will have a staff of at least seven members who will be prepared in a core of similar study in the last two years of their undergraduate program and the first year of their two year master's program. The staff members would be an appraisal analyst, a sociologist, a counselor (one per one hundred pupils at all grade levels), a physical consultant, a mental health consultant, an information specialist, and a director for program development.[87]

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[85]Herman J. Peters, "The Pupil Behavioral System," Theory Into Practice, IV (October, 1965), 146.

[86]Ibid.

[87]Ibid., 147-51.

Peters states that the program would create no special financial problems, and that the question arises as to whether we can afford the cheap model. If schools are to be as flexible as they expect their pupils to be, they will have to change. "The time is coming when we will have to choose between a remodeled, yet essentially the same, pupil personnel approach and a new, flexible system that will help take each child as far as he is capable of going--the Pupil Behavioral System."[88]

Reactions to the proposal naturally depend on one's point of view.[89] However, an important point is that Peters has developed and written about a new team approach to providing pupil personnel services. Whether this, or some other program is developed, more discussion and thought need to be done to clarify the needs, goals, and methods of pupil personnel. More national leaders need to speak out for pupil personnel services in 1966, as Wrenn spoke out for the counselors in 1962.[90]

Data Processing.

American education is being flooded with electronic equipment and other "gadgets." The trouble is that we have better equipment than ideas on how to use them.[91] One of the many innovations that will have an important affect on pupil personnel services is data processing. The

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[88] Ibid., 152.

[89] Five reactions to the Pupil Behavioral System are presented in Theory Into Practice, IV (October, 1965), 153-68.

[90] C. Gilbert Wrenn, The Counselor in a Changing World, (Washington: American Personnel and Guidance Association, 1962).

[91] Teacher's Letter, XV (March 15, 1966), 1.

fact that data processing drastically cuts clerical work and expands the scope of reports and studies that can be produced feasibly was appreciated long ago by business and government. However, public schools were slow to change in spite of the fact that they are one of the largest businesses in the nation with a great deal of clerical work.[92] Meanwhile, in the insurance industry a few companies installed computers in 1954 and within the next 10 years companies in all branches of the industry adopted data processing and applied it to various functions and operations.[93]

The use of data processing in the schools was demonstrated by a 3-year pilot project in the 22 elementary schools of Richmond, California. It eliminated many clerical chores and led to standardization of forms and material. Counselors received special help in the testing program, as they received a greater variety of information in a form more readily adaptable to effective use. In addition, the attendance clerks' task was greatly simplified and became more standardized. For school people their judgment was emphatic--the changes caused by data processing were changes for the better."[94] It seems apparent that schools need to become better informed about this and many other of the technical innovations.

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[92]Thomas D. Wogaman, "Educational Data Processing: Part I," The American School Board Journal, CLII (February, 1966), 55.

[93]U.S., Department of Labor, Impact of Office Automation in the Insurance Industry, Bulletin No. 1468 (1966), 1.

[94]Thomas D. Wogaman, "Educational Data Processing: Part 2—Changes in the Schools," The American School Board Journal, CLII (March, 1966), 15-17.

CHAPTER IV

THE FUTURE

The purpose of this paper was not to predict what will happen in pupil personnel services in the future, or to affect change in the services. The purpose was to take a quick look at strategies for educational change in pupil personnel services, and that has been done.

However, a few observations may be in order at this time. Change has become a big word in education, and much is beginning to be done to bring about change in the schools. One of the major problems is how to adequately inform educators of the significant, proven innovations, and actually get theory into practice.

Possibly the main factor influencing change is the huge amount of money available from federal programs. In many cases the money is only available for innovative projects or research, and in other instances innovative programs are strongly recommended. In addition, many of the programs stress the use of pupil personnel services. With $4 billion of federal funds to use, educational change is bound to take place, and, due to the nature of the programs encouraged, the pupil personnel services are likely to be especially influenced. A big question is: "Are there enough, or how do we get enough, capable pupil personnel workers to do the work that needs to be done?"

These are crucial times for the pupil services. As Knezevich mentioned, a John Dewey or E. L. Thorndike is not available now,[95] but if a Peters, a Ferguson, a Liddle, a Shear, or someone else, can bring unity and strength to the area of pupil personnel services, much will be accomplished. As stated in the previous chapter, a national association of pupil personnel administrators, IRCOPPS, the Pupil Behavioral System, and other factors indicate a possibility of greater unity of the services. Perhaps with more workers, more meetings, more training, and most of all, more hard work, pupil personnel services will successfully change to meet the demands it faces.

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[95] Ante, p. 6.

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